AN ANALYTICAL STUDY ON WOMEN'S TIME POVERTY, WORK STATUS AND WELL-BEING

A

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INTRODUCTION

Poverty is not just lack of money; it is not having the capability to realize one's full potential as a human being. *-Abhijit V. Banerjee.*

Poverty is often linked with lack of income and productive resources to secure sustainable livelihood. In general, those who do not have access to basics such as - shelter, food, clothing, and clean water are considered as poor (United Nations, 1998). Poverty is not only limited up to earning insufficient income to meet necessities, but it is extended up to inability of accessing basic healthcare services, education, water, and sanitation etc. (World vision, March 4, 2021). Each country has its own different norms of defining poverty and its measurements. According to the World Bank, all those people who are living on $1.90 a day or less are being considered as extremely poor.

Money is the medium to fulfill one's basic needs; therefore, material poverty has always been a matter of concern and discussion among policy makers and researchers. But material prosperities cannot be the sign of human well-being (TOI, 11 December 2020). According to the UN world Happiness Report (2021), India ranked 139 out of 149 countries despite its significant rate of growth. On explaining the Quality of life - the UN report says that income is only one of the measures of assessing well-being and not necessarily the most important .Costa Ricans use substantially less GDP to generate a level of happiness greater than what Americans generate with far more GDP (BER, Staff 2018). Therefore, non-monetary dimensions of poverty are getting importance these days. Time-Deficit is one of the most significant non-monetary dimensions of deprivation.

Time poverty is defined as the scarcity of discretionary time. Everyone has 24 hours in a day but, some have less control over their time than others. It is related with the time available after necessary and committed activities (Williams et al., 2016; Kalenkoski & Hamrick, 2013;). It is the availability of time to build up one's social and human capital. Scarcity of time for such activities is generally linked with lower level of physical and mental health, well-being, productivity, and creativity (Giurge & Whillans, 2020). It is worth to mention that time constraints just like money constraints affect the individual's well-being. Time poverty has much larger opportunity cost for communities. Therefore, it is required to carefully analyze the problem of time poverty and its linkage with human well-being (West &Whillans, 2019).

The first Time Use Survey (TUS) in India was conducted in 2019 by the National Statistical Office (NSO). The Time Use Survey (TUS) is an assessment of time outlook by the people on diverse activities. The key objective of the Time Use Survey is to analyze the participation of men and women in paid or unpaid activities. It also focuses on the time spent on leisure activities, socializing, learning and self-care activities. Primarily, time use survey report highlights the invisible female labour as unpaid care givers in India.

Human beings have always encountered resource constraints. Time and money are scarce but precious resources. Both are important determinants of human happiness. The extent to which people value each resource and the ways people spend their discretionary time and money can significantly impact their well-being. Research findings show that even after having control over the amount of time and money people have, those who value time over money report greater happiness (Mogilner, C et al., 2018).Due to excessively long hours of paid and unpaid care work, people do not find sufficient time for leisure and self-care activities. This imbalance of time disposition has negative consequences on human well-being and abilities (Saqib & Arif, 2012).

Moreover, the time poverty has strong gender dimensions (Williams & Masuda, 2016). Various research findings stress that women work (paid or unpaid) longer hours than men. Participation in unpaid work reduces women's involvement in economic activities. At the same time, scarcity of discretionary time makes women more time poor as compared to men. It results in loss of women's productivity, capabilities, and well-being (Abdourahman, 2017). The huge burden of working hours, specifically unpaid work, is a manifestation of gender disparity in India. Therefore, to bring greater gender parity, specifically in the labour market, it is vital to reduce time poverty among women.

Bhutan is considered as one of the happiest countries in the world despite the fact that 8.2% of its total population lives below the poverty line (Asian Developmental Bank, 2017). Bhutan emphasizes Gross National Happiness (GNH) rather than Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Bhutan considers GNH as a true indicator of well-being of people. GNH is inspired by the Buddhist concept of "The Middle Path" which means multidimensional balance between material well-being and the spiritual, emotional and cultural needs of the society. Psychological well-being, health and time use are among the nine important measures which are vital for happiness and well-being. Thus, time use is one of the

important factors to take into account for individual's well-being and holistic development. Eradication of material poverty is not enough but it is required to give emphasis on non-economic aspects of well-being. Time use is one of the nine domains of GNH; therefore the present study will cover issues related with the time poverty.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE (*Annexure 1)*

The time poverty means shortage of time for personal work including relational activities and leisure (Vickery, 1977). Middle-class families are commonly performing high stress managerial activities (Harvey and Mukhopadhyay, 2007). The concept of time poverty in developed countries is not new; it has been taken as 'affluenza' or 'money rich, time poor' (Wada et al., 2015). Developed nations associate time poverty with those individuals who are in well-paid jobs and earning high income. Thus, it is the general perception that the nature of job generates time constraint to the high-income earners. Consequently, they do not get sufficient time for self-care and leisure (Breuer et al., 2010). In contrast, various research stated that most of the poor people witness time deficit coupled with low level of income (Brown & Roberts, 2011).

Usually, the economic backwardness of poor compels them to work for long hours (Diener, 2015). At the same time, low level of income does not allow them to get released from the burden of unpaid daily tasks such as, collecting firewood for cooking, house cleaning, maintaining minimum sanitary conditions, washing clothes, fetching water for long distances, buying raw items and process them for cooking etc. (West, 2019). The combined pressure of paid and unpaid work makes them to face time deficit (Etkin & Aaker, 2015; Kim, 2006). The time constraint and lack of resources make their lives difficult (Abdourahman, 2017) and pushes them to remain economically backward. Thus, it can be concluded that sometimes time poverty causes material distress and money constraint results in time deficit (William et al., 2016; Shafir, 2013; Leroy, 2009).

The time poverty directly affects well-being of individuals, physical health, productivity, and social and personal relationships (Oshio and Kan, 2014). Health benefits can be achieved by performing physical activities. It is evident that people who are performing physical activities have better health status (Bise et al. 2007). The level of income plays a prominent role in attaining sound health and well-being. The lower level of income is an obstacle to attain quality of life (Kalenkoski and Hamrick,

2013). It is emphasized in various studies that low earnings contribute significantly to poor health performances (Ishii and Urakawa 2014). Despite of low level of income, lack of time is also responsible for poor health status (Galan et. al.2013; Spinney and Millward, 2010). But it is often ignored by policy makers and academicians, though it holds equal significance as of material poverty (Fujimura, 2012; Bittman, 2002).

The typical standard that has been used for measuring material poverty pre-assumes that all individuals have enough time to perform the required daily activities (including unpaid work). It is not true for those who are spending much time for unpaid activities. Thus, the notion of time poverty is getting importance day by day (Kunio, 2020; Hyytinen&Lahtonen, 2013; McCann, 2006).

The time poverty is a very serious issue for developing nations like India. Eighty per cent of rural women in India are still dependent upon firewood collection for cooking (OECD, 2011). It demonstrates an unpaid household work due to lack of money resource to afford other easily available energy source. On the other hand, the working-class women are struggling in establishing balance between work and family life due to dual responsibilities of paid and unpaid work (Kahneman et al., 2004). Different work status of women affects their time disposition in a different way.

Due to gender disparity in India, policy makers always try to improve the personal, economic, and social conditions of women. But providing them the employment status is not the solution for their upliftment (Weidman, 2016). It may increase additional burden and make them more time poor (Whillans et al., 2017). Quality, remuneration and recognition of work, as well as favorable working conditions should be prime area of concern. This can be done by providing possible alternative options for household work and childcare (Woolley and Fishbach, 2015).

Women in India on an average work for nine hours a day whereas men work for seven hours a day, out of which women spend most of their time in performing unpaid household chores (OECD, 2014). Indian women perform 10 times more unpaid work as compared to men. Moreover, challenges associated with COVID-19 has raised women's burden by 30 per cent. Participation of men in household activities (26.1 per cent) is lower than women (81.2 per cent). Contrary, women participation in paid employment is lower as compared to men, 57.3 per cent men engaged in paid employment work and only 1.4 per cent women engaged in paid activities (TUS. 2019). Time spend

by women is much lesser than time spend by men on socializing and leisure (Chetty, 2017; Gordon-Lasen, 2009). Situation of rural women is more adverse than urban women because most of them are facing time poverty only because they are indulged in unpaid work that is not even economically accounted as work of value (Kleiner, 2014).

There are several social, institutional, and organizational factors that promote time poverty (Kleiner, 2014). Government also add-on in time poverty through long paperwork and procedural following for license, educational assistance, tax deductions, subsidies which itself are time consuming practices (Saboor, 2015). Internet and mobile phones are also contributing significantly to time poverty as people are wasting their quality time on it without getting any kind of productive results (Bradshaw, 2017). Organizations usually keep their employees enraged in unnecessary work (Goodin, 2005). Many employees keep sitting idle during meetings and conferences (Bardasi, 2010). Menial administrative tasks have been assigned to employees that are not obligatory (Garrett, 1999). Psychological drivers which lead to time poverty are that prominently people undervalue their time; individuals are less concerned about minor losses of time comparatively to income (Besser, 2008). The time poverty is a very significant issue for enhancing women's well-being. Thus, it is required to unlock various dimensions of time poverty and its impact on well-being of women with different work status.

NEED OF THE STUDY

The time constraint just like the money constraint affects the well- being of an individual (Williamsetal. 2016). Everyone has 24 hours in a day, but all do not have same extent of control and flexibility over their time. Working continuously for long hours daily can make anyone exhausted. Usually, people do not get enough time for themselves. The time poverty is gradually getting significant apprehension of researchers and policy makers across the globe.

Women's participation in employment in India is considerably less than that of their male counterparts (the Periodic Labour Force Survey, 2018-19), and it is primarily due to engagement of women in unpaid domestic and care work (The Times of India, 2020). The traditional gender role of male as bread winner and female as homemaker is changing gradually. Women have started sharing the economic responsibilities of families with men. The dual responsibility has increased their workload

(paid and unpaid) and they are bound to confront time deficit problem. The problem of time poverty is affecting women in a complex way (Elson, 1995).

The time poverty is a global phenomenon, the picture is darker in case of India (The Times of India, 2020). Unequal time use pattern is a major gender issue. Unpaid work of women has enormous value, but it is invisible. The time spent on such activities is increasing disproportionately. It reduces the opportunities for women to participate in economic activities. Therefore, it is required to reduce time poverty among women to improve their quality of life by enhancing gender equality in the labour market. The present study will be a remarkable attempt in establishing the linkages

between time poverty and well- being of women with different work status. It will also address that eliminating time poverty is as important as material poverty.

OBJECTIVES

1. To describe the status and linkages of work status, time poverty and well-being.
2. To analyse women's perspectives on distribution of time on different activities.
3. To illustrate factors determining the time poverty and their impact on well-being of women.
4. To examine the existing policy framework and propose possible solutions.

HYPOTHESES

H_O1: There is no association between the time poverty and well-being of women.

$H_1 1$: Time poverty is adversely affecting the well-being of women.

H_O2: Women with different work status have equal control on distribution of their time.

$H_1 2$: Women with different work status do not have equal control on distribution of their time.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to conduct research systematically, the following Research Methodology has been proposed:

Research Type: Descriptive and Analytical

Research Design: The research data will be collected as follows:

Research Data: The data will be collected from both primary and secondary sources. The secondary data will be collected from various published records of government and non-governmental organizations, magazines, newspapers, research papers etc. Major sources of secondary data will be

the Time Use Survey, SDG baseline Index, Economic Survey, Socio-Economic Caste Survey, NSSO, Census 2011, UNDP Reports etc.

Sample Design:

Region of Study: Uttar Pradesh

Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state of India. It comprises 17.35 per cent of country's total population (Census 2011). As per NITI Aayog's SDG baseline report (2018), Uttar Pradesh ranks among the bottom five states on gender equality index. Therefore, this region is selected purposively to carry out the research to know the gendered aspect of the time poverty.

Sampling Techniques: Purposive and Multi-stage stratified random sampling techniques will be used.*(Annexure 2)*

To conduct a comprehensive study, two administrative divisions of Uttar Pradesh - Agra Administrative Division and Varanasi Administrative Division have been selected randomly. From each Administrative Division, two districts are randomly selected viz. Agra and Firozabad from Agra Administrative Division and Varanasi and Chandauli from Varanasi Administrative Division consisting rural and urban women.

Sample Size: 600Households *(Annexure3)*

On the basis of finite population correction sample size determination, sample of 400 women will be taken randomly according to the proportion of the size of stratum and additional 200 women taken to increase the accuracy of data in sample size.

Sampling Framework will be as follows:

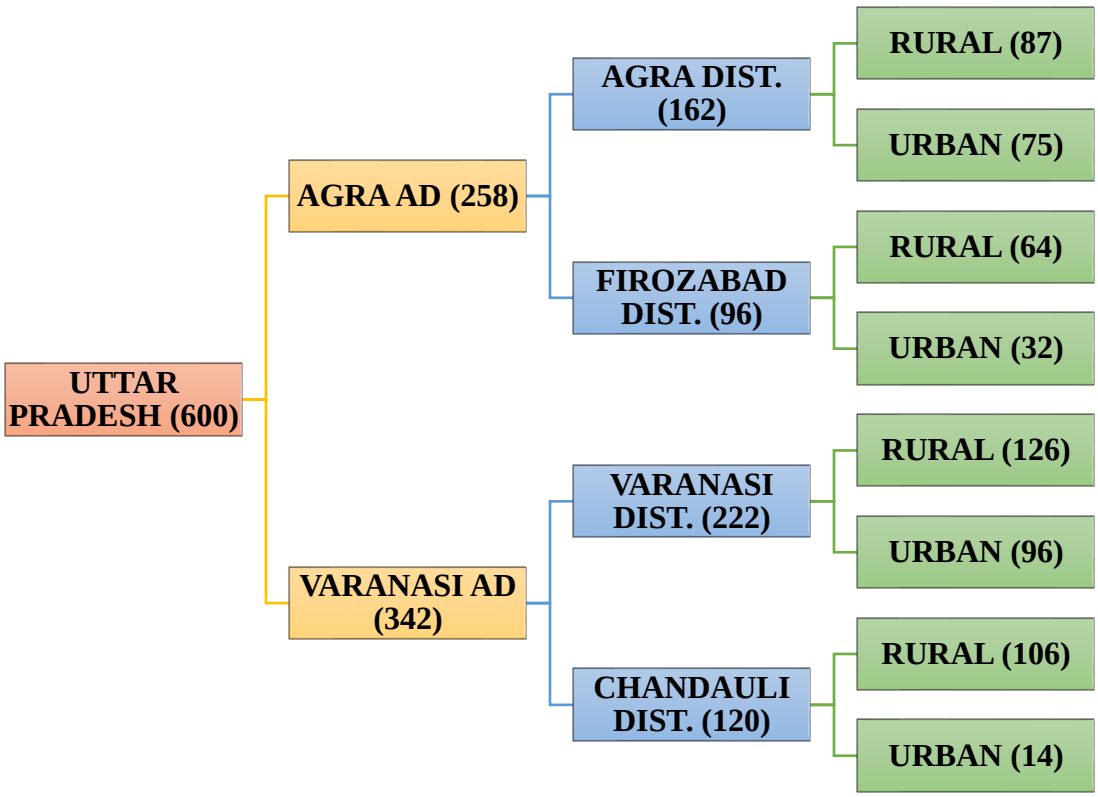

Figure 1: Sampling Framework

Research Methods & Tools for Data Collection: Survey method will be used. Data will be collected through schedule/questionnaire. Time-diary approach will be used to measure time poverty among women.

Statistical Tools/ Techniques: The following tools and techniques will be used to analyse the data.

Table: Research Tools specified as per objective

Objectives	**Tools**
1. To describe the status and linkages of work status, time poverty and well-being.	Descriptive Statistics, Time diary approach, Time Poverty and Non-time poverty measurements, Causal loop diagrams, Gallup Well Being Index
2. To analyse women's perspectives on distribution of time on different activities.	Likert Scale
3. To illustrate factors determining the time poverty and their impact on well-being of women.	Pearson's Correlation analysis and Multivariate Regression analysis, Binary Logit Model
4. To examine the existing policy framework and propose possible solutions.	Content Analysis
For Hypothesis testing	Z-test and ANOVA Kruskal Wallis Test

Computer Applications: MS-Excel and SPSS

PROPOSED CHAPTERS

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 4: Linkage between the time poverty, work status and well-being

Chapter 5: Women's time poverty: A gender-based ideology

Chapter 6: Policy Framework and Solutions

Chapter 7: Findings and Conclusions

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ANNEXURE 1

REVIEW OF LITERATURE SUMMARY SHEET

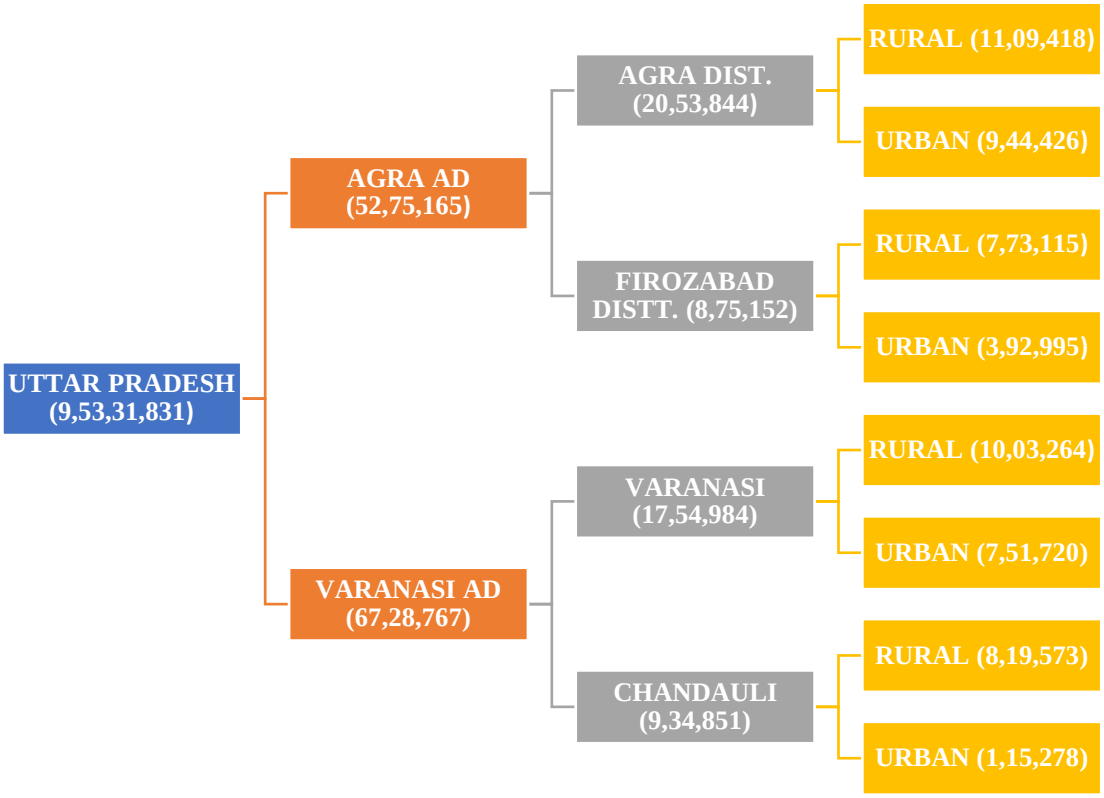
TP: Time Poverty, **WS:** Work Status, **WB:** Well-Being

S.No	Author	Year	Source	TP	WS	WB
1.	Abdourahman, O.I.	2017	Oxford University Press			
2.	Besser, L. M. et al.	2008	American Journal of Preventive Medicine			
3.	Bise, R.	2007	Preventive Medicine			
4.	Bittman, M.	2002	Social Policy and Administration			
5.	Bardasi, E., &Wodon, Q.	2010	Feminist Economics			
6.	Bradshaw, S. et al.	2017	Gender, Place and Culture			
7.	Breuer, C. et al.	2010	European Review of Aging and Physical Activity			
8.	Brown, H., & Roberts, J.	2011	Social Science and Medicine			
9.	Chetty, R. etal.	2017	Science			
10.	Diener, E. et al.	2015	American Psychologist			
11.	Etkin, J.	2015	J. Mark. Res.			
12.	Fujimura, H.	2012	Japan Labor Review			
13.	Galan, I. et al.	2013	British Medical Journal			
14.	Garrett, M., & Taylor, B.	1999	Berkeley Planning Journal			
15.	Giurge, L. M., &Whillans, A.	2020	Harvard Business School			
16.	Gordon-Larsen, P. etal.	2009	Archives of Internal Medicine			
17.	Goodin, R. E.	2005	Social Indicators Research			
18.	Harvey, A., &Mukhopadhyay	2007	Social Indicators Research			
19.	Hyytinen, A., &Lahtonen, J.	2013	Social Science & Medicine			
20.	Ishii, K., & Urakawa, K.	2014	MITA Business Review			
21.	Kahneman, D. et al.	2004	Science			
22.	Kalenkoski, C. M., & Hamrick, K. S.	2013	Applied Economic Perspectives and Policy			
23.	Kim, J.	2006	Journal of Family and Economic Issues			
24.	Kleiner, S.	2014	Social Science Research			
25.	Kneebone, E., & Holmes, N.	2015	Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution			
26.	Kunio, U.	2020	Journal of Family and Economic issues			
27.	Leroy, S.	2009	Organisational Behaviour			

			and Human Decisions Processes			
28.	McCann, B.	2006	Journal of Physical Activity and Health			
29.	Mogilner, C.	2010	Psychological Science			
30.	OECD	2018	Paris: OECD Publishing			
31.	OECD	2014	The New York Times			
32.	OECD	2011	Paris: OECD Publishing			
33.	Oshio, T., &Kan, M.	2014	International Journal for Equity in Health			
34.	Saboor, A.	2015	Springer Science			
35.	Shafir, E. &Mullainathan, S.	2013	US: Times Books/Henry Holt and Co.			
36.	Spinney, J., &Millward, H	2010	Social Indicators Research			
37.	Vickery, C.	1977	Journal of Human Resource			
38.	Wada, K. et al.	2015	BMC Public Health			
39.	West, C., &Whillans, A.	2019	Harvard Business School			
40.	Whillans, A. V. et al.	2018	Harvard Business School Working Paper			
41.	Whillans, A. V. et al.	2017	Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences			
42.	Williams, J. R.	2016	Social Indicators Research			
43.	Woolley, K., &Fishbach, A.	2015	Journal of Personality and Social Psychology			

ANNEXURE 2

WOMEN HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION



Data Source: Census 2011

ANNEXURE 3

Determination of the sample size based on finite population correction method.

$$n' = \frac{N Z^2 P(1-P)}{d^2(N-1)+Z^2 P(1-P)}$$

Where,

n'=sample size with finite population correction,
N=Population size
Z=Z statistic for a level of confidence (1.96)
P=Expected proportion (in proportion of one), (0.5)
d=Precision (in proportion of one) (0.05)

$$n' = 385 \approx 400$$

ANNEXURE 4

Vickery (1977) and Harvey and Mukhopadhyay (2007) defined Time poverty line, using the basic activity time (T_e) and the minimum time necessary for housework (T_1).

- Time Poverty if $T_m - T_1 < T_w \leftrightarrow T_a < T_w$
- Non Time Poverty if $T_m - T_1 \geq T_w \leftrightarrow T_a \geq T_w$

Where, T_w = Actual working hours (including commuting time)

T_m= Available time, which is obtained by subtracting time spent for basic activities T_e(Sleeping, eating and personal care such as excretion, bathing, and dressing) from the 24 hour of the day (168 hours of the week). After subtracting T_1 from T_m; T_a Minimum leisure time required on the basic activity time. This was assumed to be one hour per day from Monday through Friday and three hours per day on Saturdays and Sundays.

This is further categorized as:

i) The minimum required amount of time for personal care (C)

ii) The minimum required amount of non-substitutable time for household production (D) and

iii) The amount of essential substitutable household production time (R) required subsisting at the poverty-level of income.

Sleeping, eating and personal care such as excretion, bathing and dressing are "norms" for the group that the household belongs to rather than the actual observed values for the household. They are the time allocation parameters for the household which, in principle, are similar to the parameters (such as minimum expenditures on food and nonfood items) used in the construction of income/consumption poverty measures.

Time deficit or surplus is calculated by:

- $T_D = T_W - L$
- Where,

T_D = Time deficit/Surplus

T_w = Actual working hours (including commuting time) and

L = Excess or deficit of hours of income generating activity